Week 2 Notes

Lectures 3 & 4

University of Massachusetts Amherst, CS389

1 Neural Networks (lecture 3)

Definition 1.1 (Multi-dimensional data). A multi-dimensional data that has n number of data with d number of features can be written as¹:

$$X = \left[X^{(1)}, X^{(2)}, ..., X^{(n)}\right]^{T}$$
(1.1)

where $X^{(i)}$ is the i^{th} data². A single data, $X^{(i)}$ is a d-dimensional vector which has d number of features. For example, the features for a weather data may include humidity, temperature, air speed, etc. Every data is represented as a row and each feature as a column. Formally we write a single data as:

$$X^{(i)} = \left[X_1^{(i)}, X_2^{(i)}, ..., X_d^{(i)} \right] \tag{1.2}$$

Putting all this together, our multi dimensional data is a matrix with dimensions $(n \times d)$:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} X_1^{(1)} & \cdots & X_d^{(1)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ X_1^{(n)} & \cdots & X_d^{(n)} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (1.3)

1.1 Perceptron

Definition 1.2 (Perceptron). A perceptron is a computational model of a biological neuron. A graphical visualization of a perceptron can be seen in Figure 1,

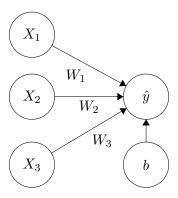


Figure 1: A single-layer perceptron

where the vertices X_i are the input features, the edges W_i are the weighted connections, the vertex b is the bias term, and the vertex Y' is the output. We can write this mathematically as:

$$\hat{y} = \phi(W^T X + b) \tag{1.4}$$

where ϕ is a non-linearity function, also known as an activation function (topic of next week).

Note that this array is transposed because X is a row vector and each $X^{(i)}$ is a d-dimensional column vector

²The reason why we use the $X^{(i)}$ notation is because $X^{(i)}$ is a vector and sometimes we need to refer to the elements of that vector [2]

1.2 Classification

In a classification problem, we want to learn to predict discrete classes which the input belongs to.

Definition 1.3 (Binary classification). Is a supervised learning algorithm that categorizes the data into one of two classes.

Recall that a linear model is defined as:

$$\hat{y} = \phi \left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} w_j \cdot X_j + b \right) = \phi(W^T X + b) \tag{1.5}$$

where the output $\hat{y} \in \mathbb{R}$ and we can apply a type of boolean function (i.e. the *sign* activation function) so that the output $\hat{y} \in \{-1, +1\}$. Given a fixed model, the binary classifier is defined as:

$$\hat{y} = \operatorname{sign}(W^T X + b) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } W^T X + b > 0\\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (1.6)

As can be seen in Figure 2, the points that are on the same side as the normal vector to the hyperplane is the positive half-spaces are classified as positive. Likewise, the other half-space is negative and all points are classified as negative [2].

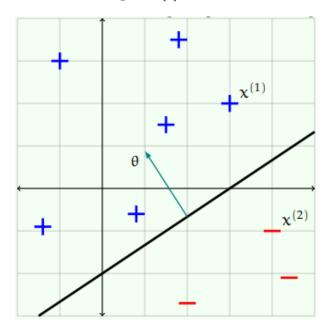


Figure 2: Binary Classification Example. The θ is the same variable as W [2]

1.3 Linear Separability

Theorem 1. If the dataset, D, is linearly separable, then the perceptron algorithm is guaranteed to find a linear separator [2]

How would one formally describe linear separability? This is beyond the scope for this class, but you can refer to this MIT lecture notes (pg. 4) for a detailed explanation. The intuition is if the shortest distance of a point to the hyperplane (the norm) is positive for all points then the dataset is classified correctly. You can use Figure 2 to help with this visualization. Understanding this helps us understand why the perceptron is unable to solve XOR.

1.4 Regression

Definition 1.4 (Regression). Predict continuous outputs $(\hat{y} \in \mathbb{R})$ that are close to the true values

2 Stochastic Gradient Descent implementation (lecture 4)

Hopefully, we now have a mathematical understanding and an intuition of all the main components of a supervised machine learning model. We can now start implementing a very simple SGD. Recall that in a SGD, we want to update the parameters W and b after every single training data.

Algorithm 1 Stochastic Gradient Descent algorithm

```
▷ number of epochs
1: for e in range Epoch do
         for X^{(i)} in X do
2:
                                                                                                     ▷ loop through entire dataset
             \hat{y}^{(i)} = X^{(i)}W^T + b
                                                                                       \triangleright our model's prediction for input X^{(i)}
3:
              Loss^{(i)} = \frac{1}{2} \sum (y^{(i)} - \hat{y}^{(i)})^2
4:
                                                                            ▷ calculate MSE loss of prediction with actual
             W = W - \alpha \frac{\partial L^{(i)}}{\partial W}b = b - \alpha \frac{\partial L^{(i)}}{\partial b}
                                                                                                                         ▶ update weight
5:
6:
                                                                                                                             ▶ update bias
         end for
7:
8: end for
```

2.1 Calculating Gradient of Loss

The gradient of loss can be written as $\nabla_W \text{Loss}$ or $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W}$. The gradient of loss is a vector of partial derivatives. We will often use terms such as "the gradient on x" instead of the technically correct phrase "the partial derivative on x" for simplicity [3]:

$$\nabla_W \text{Loss} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial W} = \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1}, \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_2}, ..., \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_m}\right)$$
(2.1)

Using the chain rule we have:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial W_j} = \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial W_j} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \hat{y}} \tag{2.2}$$

Now recall that $\hat{y} = W^T X + b$ and $L = \frac{1}{2} \sum{(y^{(i)} - \hat{y}^{(i)})^2}$, therefore:

$$\frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial W_j} = X_j^{(i)} \tag{2.3}$$

$$\frac{\partial \hat{L}}{\partial \hat{y}} = \hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)} \tag{2.4}$$

$$\nabla_W \text{Loss} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial W} = \left[X_1^{(i)} \cdot (\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}), X_2^{(i)} \cdot (\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}), ..., X_n^{(i)} \cdot (\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) \right]$$
(2.5)

$$\therefore \frac{\partial L}{\partial W} = \left[X_1^{(i)}, X_2^{(i)}, ..., X_n^{(i)} \right] \cdot (\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) = X^{(i)} \cdot (\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})$$
 (2.6)

References

- [1] Cooper.
- [2] MIT Open Learning Library, 6.036, Spring 2020, https://openlearninglibrary.mit.edu/assets/courseware/v1/2481f8f2964716032b134db99e369b81/asset-v1: MITx+6.036+1T2019+type@asset+block/notes_chapter_Introduction.pdf
- [3] Fei-Fei Li, Jiajun Wu, and Ruohan Gao, Stanford CS231n, Spring 2022. https://web.archive.org/web/20230109135558/https://cs231n.github.io/